

**SEAPRAP RESEARCH
REPORT NO. 75**

**SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS AND
FERTILITY BEHAVIOR OF SLUM DWELLERS IN
ILOILO CITY**

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DEDICATION

This humble work is dedicated to

Vic

my husband,

whose patience, suggestions,

and countless support have made this

labor a dream come true.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Excessive fertility by families with meager resources was recognized as one of the potent forces to perpetuate slums, ill-health, inadequate education and even delinquency. Following the theory of Thomas Malthus on population, "man's ability to reproduce was greater than his ability to produce the necessities of life," one can see that the problem of poverty and misery has evidently been threatening the earth for several centuries, as man tends to increase his kind faster than he increases his subsistence. Malthus saw that the problem of fertility would continue to confront the economically advanced countries and would continue to remain a serious one. This is evidenced among families at the lowest levels of income and education as shown by the United States, the United Kingdom and Sweden - where families with the most limited economic and educational resources have a relatively high fertility rate. Malthus then was not only right in foreseeing the problem of "over-population" among highly developed countries, but was even more correct regarding developing nations as they undergo rapid urbanization and modernization.

The Population Control and Economic Development Centre of Organization for Economic Cooperation (1969) reported that the rate of urbanization in the underdeveloped countries was almost uniformly between 4 and 5 percent per annum. Such growth of urbanization threatens and worsens the problems of housing and public services which primarily affects the poor (slum) sectors.

Laquian (1968) confirmed the consequences, stating that, "as urbanization becomes a world-wide phenomenon, slums and squatting become common in developing countries." The push of the poor countryside and the pull of the urban centers send people flocking to the cities at an unprecedented rate. The results especially during periods of political upheaval and calamities, are the choking and overcrowding of cities. In 1960, the American Development Bank (Petersen 1972) estimated the housing shortage in Latin America at

between 12 and 14 million units, which would cost a total of \$30 billion, and with modest community facilities as much as \$50 billion. One need only ponder where such an amount could come from to realize that slums are an inevitable fact.

Consequently, the Philippines also is no exception to this universal fact. The population data sheet published by the Population Reference Bureau records the Philippine population as of 1978 to be 46 million. The 1975 census (volume I) showed the country's population to be 42,670,665, ranking 15th in the world and 6th in Asia. In 1970 it was shown that the growing segment of the Philippine population was living in towns and cities. The Population Center Foundation (1978) published statistics showing that the country was 32 percent urbanized. With this growth there was no doubt that the population of Latin America was now being experienced in the national arena. President Marcos himself said that the two conditions which today show vividly the nature and extent of the problem of housing are the slums and the squatters (Gorospe, 1970). In greater Manila, for instance, it is estimated that about 20 percent of the population lives in slums or squatter colonies. Since the squatter population is increasing at 12 percent per year, a much bigger rate than the total population rate, squatters are becoming an ever larger part of the total population (Hendershot, 1969).

Iloilo province, the sixth ranking province in the country today, has a total population of 1,313,040 of which 227,221 are urban people. Total households number 355,819 (Integrated Census, 1975). Laquian (1972) pointed out that the city alone has thirty two percent slum dwellers and squatters.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The squatter (the man who illegally occupies the land and builds his own home on it), has its own special character. Illegal housing construction on someone else's land is facilitated by the warm climate in areas like Manila. Squatters need to build a minimal structure

rapidly before being discovered by the owner. Thus Hendershot (1967, p. 25), commented that the need for more housing is inescapable as long as population continues to grow. In greater Manila for instance about 20 percent of the population lives in slums or squatter colonies.

People in the slums are symptoms of urban problems, not the cause. They are virtually imprisoned in that low stratum of society for a variety of reasons which can only be understood by immersing oneself into their lifestyle. While our society is designed to assure alternatives to where we live, how we live and what we do, slum dwellers do not have that freedom of choice. They are denied a full range of opportunities in education, jobs and to some extent the services they need most. Relative to these forces are the phenomenal characteristics of the slum sectors themselves that may hasten population growth. Hence this study is undertaken with references to the following variables:

1. Demographic characteristics (age, sex and marital status of household member).
2. Education (highest grade completed for both husband and wife).
3. Fertility (for women 15-49 years of age - to include age at first marriage, duration of marriage and number of children ever born).
4. Employment (whether husband and wife are employed, underemployed or unemployed).
5. Migration status (duration of stay in the city, reasons for leaving the place of origin and reasons for the choice of the present place to live in).
6. Family Planning practice (use or non-use).

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

The research would try to test the major hypothesis which states that, for slum dwellers fertility varies according to:

- (1) level of education of husband and wife;
- (2) labor force participation status of husband and wife;
- (3) family planning practice; and
- (4) migration status.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Being descriptive in nature, the study was an attempt to describe the socio-demographic characteristics and fertility behavior of slum dwellers in Iloilo City. Respondents are married women aged 15-19 years old, who are then the unit of analysis.

Specifically the Objectives of the Study were:

1. To describe the socio-demographic characteristics of slum-dwellers in Iloilo City e.g. age (husband and wife), family size, household size, age, sex and marital status of all household members, educational attainment of the husband and wife, income of husband and household income, wife's participation in gainful employment and migration status of women after marriage.
2. To determine whether the fertility level of slum dwellers is associated with their amount of education.
3. To find out whether there is a relationship between women's age at first marriage and their fertility.
4. To establish a relationship between the amount of education of women and their family planning behavior.
5. To show whether Family Planning behavior is influencing women's fertility behavior.
6. To determine whether migration behavior of women affects their fertility level.

ability to remember exactly. It is therefore possible that most of the information given was but a modest approximation of the data asked for.

Another limitation is found in the slum attitude of suspicion of foreign faces - the interviewers whom they met for the first time. This leads not only to the difficulty in obtaining vital information, but also increases the possibility of biased information. The accuracy of the data therefore leaned hard on the respondents' ability to recall, to report with authenticity and to their willingness to cooperate. To maximize efficiency of the schedule, the researcher employed two research aids from all areas being covered.

Moreover the researcher is cognizant of the fact that since the study included only ten out of twenty identified slum barangays in Iloilo City, the findings may not be conclusive. To augment the already listed limitations of the study, it is worthwhile to note the institution of a number of developments of both government and private entities, business enterprises and the like which may have affected the structural set-up of the city.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

To provide clarity to the study, terminologies are defined technically within the context as used:

Slum-dwellers - are persons living in the areas identified by the Ministry of Social Services and Development (MSSD) as depressed barangay; people who are recipients of the MSSD programs and benefits for the needy.

Household head - spouse of respondent who is known to be the main provider of the family and is responsible for the care and organization of the household.

Household members - are persons irrespective of their age, sex, marital status who are living in the household at the time of the interview and share a common arrangement for the preparation and consumption of food.

Amount of education - refers to the highest number of years of schooling one has attained.

Migration - refers to the movements of person or household members from one house to another house in the same barangay/district (NISAB); another barangay in the same town (ABSAT); another town (AT); another province (AP); and those not belonging to above mentioned places (NAMP).

Age at marriage - refers to the number of years completed or lived by a woman since she have started a marital union and/or cohabitation.

Length of stay in the city - refers to the length of time one has spent living in the present place.

Fertility - refers to the number of completed births (i.e. dead and alive) a woman has had at the time of interview.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Several studies agree on slums and squatting as a social problem, and some would view the problem as the natural consequence of development. Edwards (1972) for example, views the increasing concentration of people in urban areas as the key to development since urban areas are the centers for innovative ideas and activities which are vital for nation building. Others would look at it as a problem associated with population maldistribution. Whichever view, most seem to agree that slums are the visible evidence of the exploding city, the object of sympathy, high fertility and thus poverty. Rarely however was the effort focused on the investigation as to whether slum dwellers are experiencing some form of change in their status relative to their varying socio-demographic characteristics.

At present both the government and private institutions through various media of communication are launching a massive campaign for the control of population growth. Such efforts may be assumed to have influenced the fertility behavior of women in all walks of life, specifically the slum dwellers who are the potential targets of the MSSD programs.

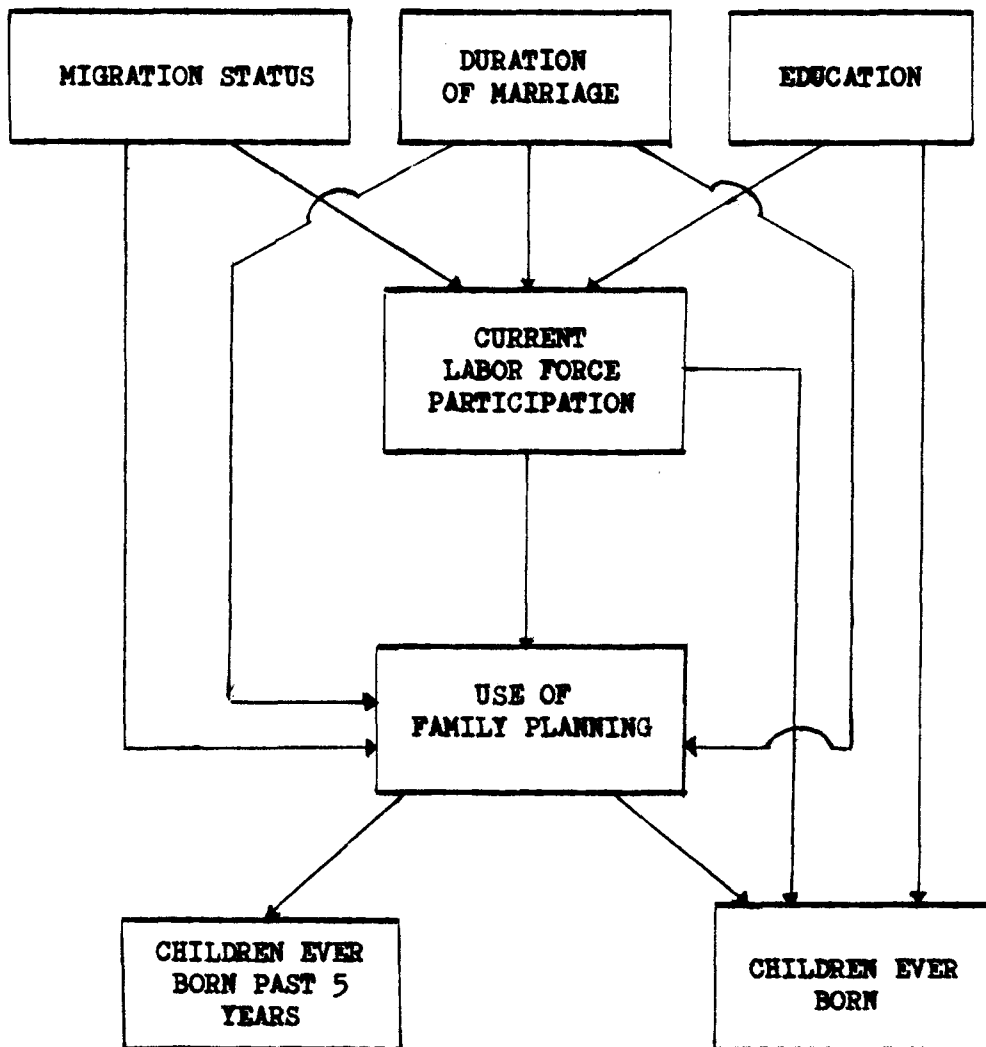


FIGURE I: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this context it can be assumed that Iloilo City slum dwellers have varying fertility behavior according to their varying socio-demographic characteristics.

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

The main hypothesis suggests that for slum dwellers fertility varies according to their varying socio-demographic characteristics.

Specifically the following hypothesis states that:

1. The amount of education influences the fertility behavior of slum dwellers.
2. Those who married young have a higher fertility than those who married old.
3. The more the number of moves the slum dwellers have, the lower the fertility.
4. Slum dwellers who are actively participating in gainful employment have lower fertility.
5. Family planning acceptors have lower fertility.
6. The higher the educational attainment the higher the participation in gainful employment.
7. The longer the duration of marriage the slum dwellers have, the lower the participation in gainful employment.
8. The more number of moves of the respondents, the higher the participation in gainful employment.

CHAPTER II

RELATIONSHIP WITH EXISTING RESEARCH LITERATURE

The explosive growth of the urban population is brought about by natural increase and/or migration. A few of the more obvious results that rapid population growth brings are problems which include poor housing and few urban services. Ultimately, these give rise to slum dwellings, underemployment and even unemployment.

A slum is a deteriorated area of the city populated by poor people, where the oldest housing is generally found separating the central business district from the newer residential districts. Old buildings however do not cause slums. It is the low income of the residents which creates slum housing (Muth, 1969). Hollingshead in Elmtown's Youth stated that many lower class children are forced to drop out of school simply because they are the object of conscious and unconscious discrimination on the part of classmates, teachers and school administrators. Further, he stated that for many in the lower class milieu formal education seems a wasteful frill: time spent in the classroom might be better spent in earning money, helping the family or simply having fun (Hodges, 1964, pp. 144-148). Such statements are confirmed by Conant (1961, p. 36) stressing that youth in the big city slums dwell in a mammoth social complex. They have all the negative influences, including the lack of high mobility in the family unit. The family unit is one that discourages education and does not stimulate ambitions. Chances are, according to Hunter (1969, p. 49) that the slum child lives with parents or adults with little or no education. They do not provide the stimulus or encouragement for the child to benefit from schooling. Rather, they expect the child to drop out of school before finishing high school. Another support was that of Duncan's findings which showed that the family factor and the school dropout provide the pressures that impel even academically talented youth to withdraw from school (Merton 1971, p. 575). William Foote Whyte (1955), in his study of Cornerville, an Italian slum district peopled by two groups of men, the college boys and the corner boys, explained that in the district

though education is tremendously important for social and economic advancement, it is not enough to explain why some men rise while others remain stationary.

Deutsch (1963) pointed out that the skills the lower class child brings to school are such as to make early failure almost inevitable. Therefore school experience in the house means that skills of inattention are learned. Funch (1968) said the value system of the slum school contains the tacit belief that social conditions outside the school are such that failure by children is inevitable. This belief, in turn, makes such failure inevitable. The school socializes new teachers into perpetuating its values and attitudes; therefore failure is perpetuated because teachers learn how to help children fail.

The Population Census Survey (1975) revealed that in Iloilo, out of 1,082,119 persons aged 6 and over, 61.1 percent have completed at least a year of elementary education; 17.1 a year of high school education, and 4.6 percent a year of college education. Academic holders constitute 3.9 percent, while 11.7 percent have not completed any year or grade of formal education. Of the 661,103 persons who received an elementary education, 32.0 percent of those who attended college have not earned a degree. The Loobon study revealed that unemployment is one of the main problems. Of the total number of 1,758 employable adults 15 and over in the sample survey, 1,191 are jobless, representing about 66.75 percent of the total labor forces (Jocano, 1975, pp. 35-37). The same trend follows in Laquians study of Barrio Magsaysay (1968, p. 68). He found out that the place is populated by a relatively young group. The modal age for household heads was 25 and 30 years. Further findings from Magsaysay's research revealed that there was significant correlation between youth and education. A full 38.24 percent of all family heads who were 24 years old have gone through high school. The percentage of secondary school graduates declined as age increased.

Holger (1975) argues that lower working class people have few occupational skills and frequently have less than a grade school education. Many have difficulty finding a job because they are the

last to be hired and the first to be fired. They have difficulty acquiring job seniority. Thus it is not surprising that many of these people believe diligence and thrift have little to do with getting ahead and that only by "luck" or "connections" will they ever better themselves. The book Slums and Suburbs: A Commentary on Schools in Metropolitan Areas, stated that in a few studies conducted in slum areas in large cities with respect to unemployment of the youth, 59 percent of male youth between ages 16 and 20 are out of school and unemployed; of the boys who graduated from high school, 48 percent were unemployed. "Although the causes of juvenile delinquency are complex and there is no single solution, employment opportunities are clearly important," he concluded (Conant 1961, p. 36).

During the period of prosperity when unemployment is reduced to a relatively low level, the disreputable poor remain unemployed or work irregularly (Broom and Selznick 1973, p. 186). Close to these findings, the Survey on Squatters Settlement in Kuala Lumpur showed that in the settlement the average monthly earnings of those paid for employment or who have other sources of income vary only within a narrow range. It can be described as offering only a barely subsistence level in Malaysia, which has a relatively younger population and thus a higher ratio of unemployment (Pirie).

A somewhat different finding on unemployment rates among slum dwellers or squatters both internationally and nationally was revealed by various studies. Luke S. K. Wong for example found that in squatter settlements in Hongkong, only four percent of the economically active population was unemployed (Dwyer, 1971). Latin America has a relatively low unemployed squatter population: twelve percent in Rio de Janeiro and eight percent in Barranguilla (Ulack). Slum Dwelling can be both "a slum of hope or a slum of despair." A comparative study of "Slum and Squatter Communities in Five Philippine Cities" published in the Philippine Planning Journal noted that only between one and six percent of the population can be classified as unemployed in the slum and squatter settlements surveyed in Baguio, Iloilo, Cebu, Davao and Iligan Cities (Cariño, 1971, p. 12). In like manner, Ulack (1976) found that in La Paz, one of the slum areas he studied in Cagayan de Oro City, two of the

twenty respondents interviewed were unemployed and the average monthly income of household heads was about 175 pesos.

Herbert Gans (1966, p. 54) study on West-Enders stated that to the West-Enders children come because of marriage and because God brings them. There is some planning of conception either through the use of the church approved rhythm method, or more rarely, contraception. To them the couple with 6 to 8 children seems to be rare as a large family size is still respected because couples highly value children themselves. In Manila, Jocano (1975, pp. 56-57) found that among the slum dwellers, conception of children is not discouraged especially by those who are religious. To them it is sinful to tamper with what God has given man - the ability to bear children. A number of women further express the desire to have more children because it is the only way they can hold their man, to help him and to keep him motivated to work, aside from the children's functional economic value. Moreover, the survey on the "Values, Attitudes and Desire for Children" revealed their reasons include the view that children help to avoid boredom, to serve as distractions from problems of work and as relief from strain and worry. To strengthen family ties and to make the marriage more stable and durable, was mentioned by one-fifth of the respondents. From among many questions asked "assistance in old age" got the highest response (Bulatao, 1976). The same results are given by Jocano et. al. (1976) in their studies on "The Value of Children of the Lakeshore, Laguna."

What attracted migrants to America was the gleaming hope of a better life that bustling industrial complexes have always held out to the poor and the down-trodden. So they poured into the big northern and western Metropolitan areas. Many have indeed caught on in city life and we should not ignore that fact. In March 1967, for example, the average Negro family in the Metropolitan areas had an annual income of \$5,300 as compared with an average of \$2,900 for those who remained behind. But many did not get jobs and what happened was commonly tragic. The able-bodied man often could not find a job in the alien culture. Again in 1968, the unemployed generally, and especially the jobless Negroes were concentrated in the largest Metropolitan Areas

in the U.S. In some big city slums only about half of the adult men have full-time jobs and about one-fifth of those with full-time jobs earn less than \$60 per week, Loewenstein (1977). An "Assimilation Model" illustrated that the rural and urban population are assumed to possess a significantly different subculture: the values and norms of the rural subculture create and sustain behavior patterns which result in high fertility, while the values and norms of the urban subculture tend to produce lower fertility. In contrast, the "Social Mobility Model" argues that the urban culture creates pressures which will be first felt by rural-urban migrants, thus they are expected to adopt contraception which results in lower fertility (Hendershot, 1971). With regards to employment, many studies have shown that migrants have little opportunity of moving to a higher occupational structure. In support of this contention, a study conducted in developed societies has suggested that persons from farm origins occupied the lower rung of the urban occupational ladder (Lipset and Bendix, 1959). Palabrica-Costello (1978) did a study of differential migration to Cagayan de Oro and found that migration rates to the city were especially heavy among young adults, females, and unmarried persons. Migrants were also found to be better educated than non-migrants in their areas of origin but less well educated than those already living in the city.

Consequences of migration to the individual have interested some of the Philippine social scientists. A few studies which have been conducted along these lines include Lopez and Hollnsteiner, 1976 and Zablan, 1977 who portrayed migrants to cities as having financial difficulties. Zablan, for example, listed the numerous difficulties encountered by the migrants coming from rural areas to Cebu City. Among these are unemployment, underemployment and obtaining sufficient income. In response to these pressing problems encountered by migrants Hendershot (1971) indicated that on the average migrants are making necessary adjustments which results in lower fertility than the natives.

The preceding research work suggests that the fertility of slum dwellers is higher than that of ordinary urban residents and that it

varies in terms of education, employment, and migration status. All these appear to be related to this writer's interest in the theoretical problems involved and have suggested the hypotheses to be explored in this study.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Population, Sample and Place of Study

This study was conducted in the city of Iloilo, province of Iloilo, Philippines as shown in Figure 2. It is one of the two capital cities in the Island of Panay, the other one being Roxas City. It is a first-class city which is composed of five districts namely: Jaro, La Paz, Manduriao, Mulo and Arevalo. The city proper is comprised of barangays, twenty of which were identified as "depressed barangay" by the Ministry of Social Service and Development (MSSD).

Table 1 shows the total number of barangay from which the identified depressed barangay were used as a sampling frame for the primary sampling unit in selecting ten sample barangays, which were drawn through probability sampling proportionate to population size (PPS). The sampled barangay which were drawn without replacement were used as the sampling frame for the second stage sampling.

The desired clusters or barangays, however, were drawn systematically through probability proportionate to size (PPS) drawn without replacement. Such sampling procedure was done by assigning probability numbers (a four-digit number for each area from 0001-4778. Then an interval was computed using the following formula:

$$I = \frac{\text{Total Number of HH}}{\text{desired number of cluster}}$$

where:

T = the interval

Total number of household = the
census household count of 1975

desired number of cluster = number
of barangay wants to obtain

The completed households listings of all areas were numbered separately, n to nth to be used as the sampling frame for each particular

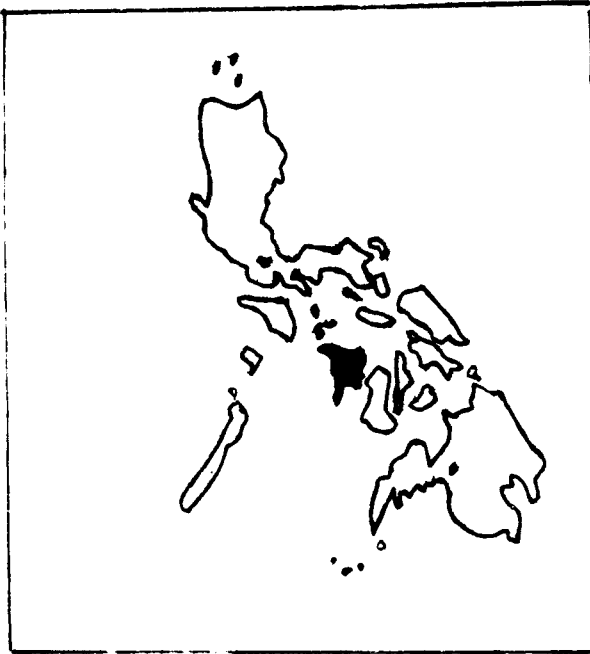


FIGURE 2. Map of the Panay Island showing the physical features of the

Table 1. Areas Identified by Ministry of Social Services and Development as "Depressed Barangay" Areas Used as Sampling Frame for Primary Sampling Unit

Name of Barangay	Household Population 1975	Probability Numbers
Malipayon Delgado	108	0001 - 0108
Timawa Tanza	225	0109 - 0333
Villa Anita	329	0334 - 0662
Maria Clara	197	0663 - 0859
Tanza Baybay	300	0860 - 1159
General Hughes	303	1160 - 1462
Ortiz	270	1463 - 1732
Rizal Estanzuela	356	1733 - 2088
Zamora Estanzuela	245	2089 - 2333
Edganson	218	2334 - 2551
Osmena	142	2552 - 2713
Rizal Pala Pala II	303	2714 - 3016
Blumentrit de la Rama	233	3017 - 3249
Rizal Pala Pala I	201	3250 - 3450
Mabolo Delgado	206	3451 - 3656
Danao	223	3657 - 3879
Legaspi de la Rama	172	3880 - 4051
Rima Rizal	110	4052 - 4161
Rizal Ibarra	182	4162 - 4343
Veterans Village	435	4354 - 4778
T O T A L	4778	

barangay. Units were drawn systematically from the sampling frame using the table of random numbers (Yamane, 1978). The formula employed in determining sample size for the actual household to be interviewed, in each area was:

$$\frac{\text{actual household count}}{\text{expected household count}} - \text{ideal number of sample size}$$

where: actual household count = the present household population

expected = the census count of 1975

Ideal number of sample size = total household to be interviewed

Table 2 shows the sampled barangay and the sample size for each area.

Table 2. Sample Barangay with Both the 1975 Household Population and Total Number of Household Population Enumerated at the Time of Interview; and the Total Number of Respondents in Each Barangay

Sample Barangay	Household Population (1975)	Household Count at Interview	Number of Respondents
Rizal Pala Pala I	201	287	44
Legaspi de la Rama	172	172	40
Veterans Village	435	379	35
Malipayon Delgado	108	94	35
Tanza Baybay	300	305	41
Ortiz	270	212	32
Rizal Estanzuela	356	302	33
Edganson	218	47	16
Rizal Pala Pala II	303	223	38
T O T A L	2363	2021	344

Nevertheless, Table 2 as shown revealed that 8 or 80 percent of the clusters did not meet the ideal pick of 40 samples or units because of some changes that had occurred in the areas. Of those areas with a decreased population of household, 2 or 25 percent suffered the greatest fall of slum inhabitants namely: Ortiz and Villa Anita. The former being in close proximity to the recent constructed/expanded banking, business and educational institutions should have a tremendous population fall out. The slum population which sits back of the latter (Villa Anita) perhaps was due to the conversion of a portion of it into a sub-division, as well as to the expansion of the American Schools and the Anti Tuberculosis Pavillion.

Here the author acknowledges a degree of bias introduced into the enumeration of the household population in Villa Anita. Household residents in this sub-division were deliberately omitted due to personal judgment that the area, assessed through its buildings, its well landscaped surroundings and through common knowledge was peopled by wealthy families. Therefore, Villa Anita was taken out of the sample because it could not be defined as a slum or a depressed area according to the MSSD.

DATA COLLECTION

A structured interview schedule was used in gathering the data. The instruments provided enough space for both specific questions that required relatively concise answers expected of the respondents (e.g. age, sex, marital status, education, etc.) as well as some opportunities for probes and follow-ups. The schedule was constructed in English and then translated into the respondents native tongue (Hiligaynon). To ensure reliability of the Hiligaynon version of the schedule it was again re-translated into English by another person and revised to correct any problems.

To ascertain clarity and appropriateness of the instrument for gathering pertinent information, it was pretested by ten people who were representative of the population of the sample. It was at this period also that the length of time for interviewing was determined as

well as other ambiguities that had not been foreseen during the revision and translation of the instrument. Data on the pre-test were analyzed and studied for material feasible for reproduction and field administration. Respondents used in the pre-test were excluded in the final analysis.

DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of data was done in two parts: (a) a description of the socio-demographic characteristics of slum dwellers; and (b) relating some of this characteristics to their fertility behavior.

Frequencies, means, and percentages were employed in the descriptive analysis, while Chi-square (Freund, 1952) was utilized in showing the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. The same statistical method likewise was used to determine the acceptance and rejection of the entire hypotheses which were all tested at .05 level of significance. The formula followed was:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(f-e)^2}{e}$$

where: f = the observe frequency

e = an expected frequency

$(f-e)^2$ = the squared value after subtracting
the expected frequency from the
observed value

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Historical Background of the City of Iloilo

The city of Iloilo on the southeast coast of Panay Island is the principal trade center of the Western Visayas. In 1936, the city was granted its charter by the Commonwealth Act No. 57. Located at the mouth of the Jaro River, the city was the site of Spanish control. It still shows a marked Spanish influence in the architecture of its buildings and famous churches.

In 1688, Iloilo City became the capital of Iloilo province, which also included all of Panay Island and part of Negros. One of the earliest Philippine ports opened to foreign trade, the port of Iloilo began serving international shipping in 1855. The city grew rapidly as the major port for the commercial sugar industry of Negros. However, with the eventual construction of harbor facilities in Negros, there was a huge drop in Iloilo's freight.

The port city continues to service the rest of the rice, sugar and fish-producing island of Panay which includes the provinces of Antique, Capiz and Aklan. In addition, passenger traffic is high with thousands of laborers migrating through Iloilo to Negros sugar plantations. Iloilo's excellent protected harbor is provided by the Iloilo Strait which lies between Panay and Guimaras Islands.

Iloilo's income of ₱9,688,029 in fiscal year 1971-1972 was principally derived from its ports and tourism industry. The rest came from several small-scale industries. The city has a large home textile industry which produces pinã jusi. It is also an important furniture manufacturing center.

The city occupies an area of approximately 56 square kilometers. Its population, which showed a steady increase up to the 1930's has grown more slowly. In 1970, the population of Iloilo City was 209,738 with a density of 3,745 persons per square kilometer. The population increase from 1960 to 1970 was 39 percent (World Atlas, 1975).

- a. Tonza Bay boy
- b. Rizal Estanzuela
- c. Rizal Pala pala I
- d. Rizal Pala pala II
- e. Ortiz
- f. Malipayon Delgado
- g. Veteron's Village
- h. Ed Ganson
- i. Legaspi dela Rama

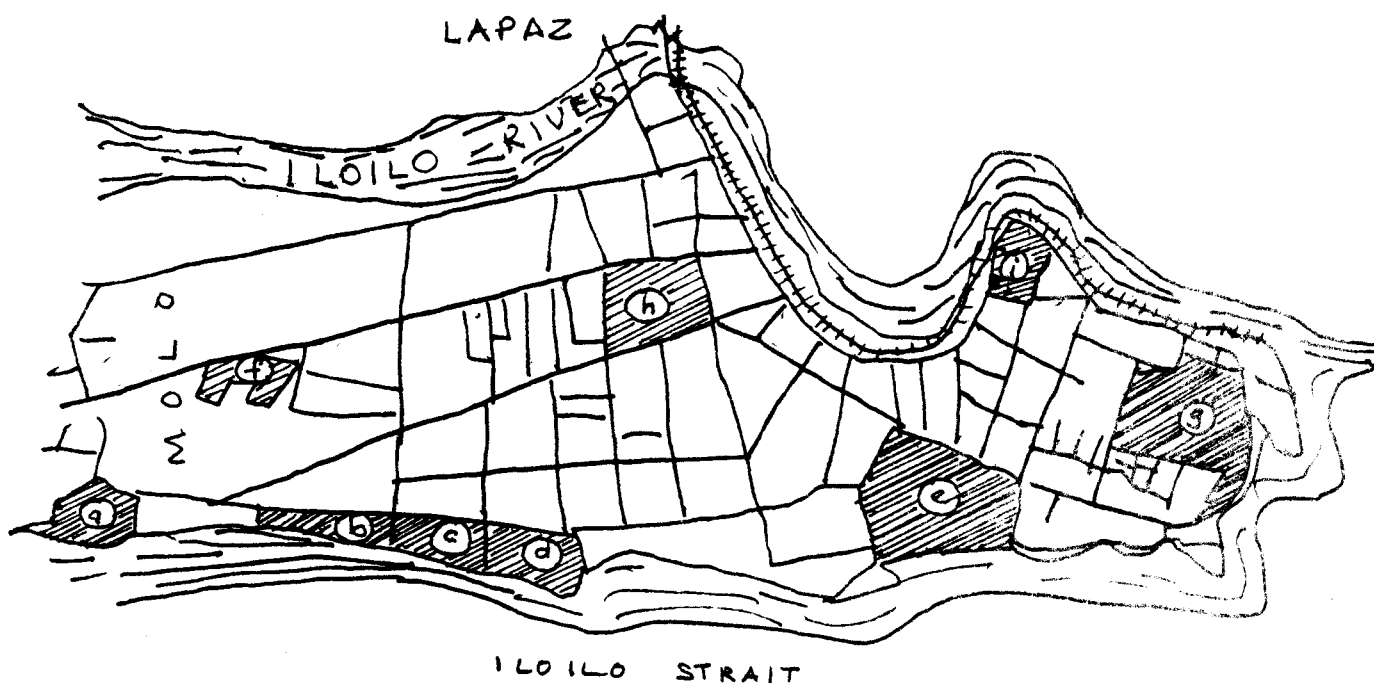
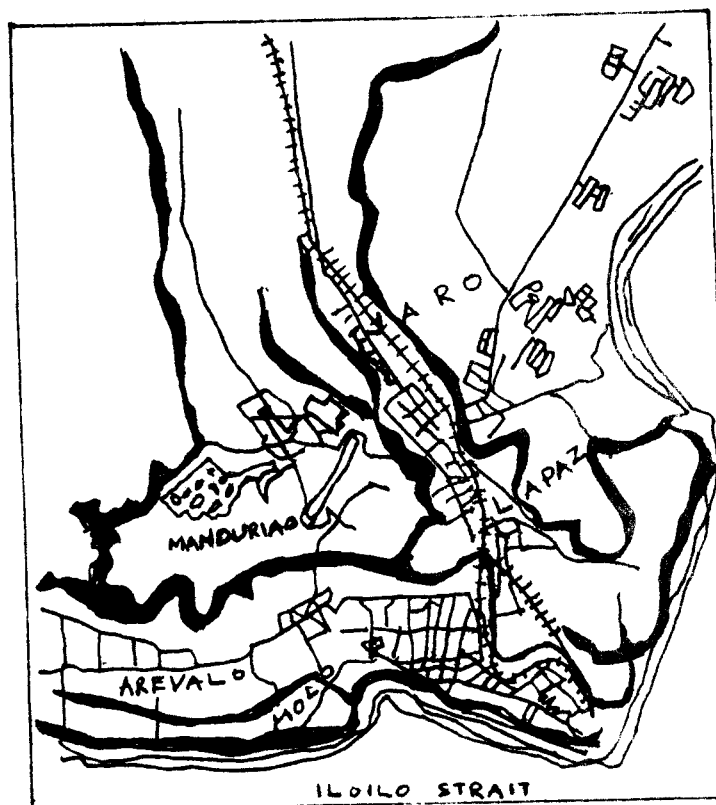


FIGURE 3. MAP OF ILOILO CITY PROPER SHOWING THE BARANGAYS COVERED IN THIS STUDY.

Table 3. Demographic characteristics of respondents

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Age of respondents	15 - 19	6	1.9
	20 - 24	51	16.2
	25 - 29	71	22.6
	30 - 34	63	20.1
	35 - 39	51	16.9
	40 - 44	39	12.4
	45 - 49	33	9.9
	Total R	314	100.0
	Total Age	10,630	
	Mean Age	32.6	
Age of household heads	19 - 24	22	7.0
	25 - 29	64	20.4
	30 - 34	66	21.0
	35 - 39	48	15.3
	40 - 44	50	15.9
	45 - 49	36	11.5
	50 and over	28	8.9
	Total R	314	100.0
	Total Ages	11,826	
	Mean Age	36.3	
Educational Attainment (wife)	No schooling	0	0
	Elementary	110	35.0
	Primary 1-4	(26)	(8.3)
	Intermediate 5-6	(84)	(26.8)
	High school	148	47.1
	College	56	17.8
	Total	314	100.0
	Total EW	2,638	
	Mean	8.09	

contd

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Educational Attainment (husband)	No response	7	2.7
	Elementary	107	34.1
	Primary 1-4	(30)	(9.6)
	Intermediate 5-6	(77)	(24.5)
	High school	132	42.0
	College	68	21.7
	Total	314	100.0
	Total EW	2,696	
	Mean	8.27	
Household Heads Income (Weekly)	No income	9	2.9
	P100.00 and below	136	43.3
	P101.00 to P299.00	155	49.4
	P300 and over	14	4.5
	Mean	P121.00/week	
	Median	P116.97/week	
Children Ever Born (dead and alive)	0 - 2	103	32.8
	3 - 4	101	32.2
	5 and over	110	35.0
	Total	314	100.0
	Total Births	1,338	
	Mean	4.10	
Household size	2 - 3	42	13.4
	4 - 5	108	34.7
	6 - 7	84	26.8
	8 and over	79	25.2
	Total	314	
	Total Births	2,009	
	Mean	6.18	

contd

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Sex	Male	937	48.5
	Female	987	51.5
	Total	1,924	100.0
	Sex ratio	98/100	
Marital Status	Single	1,138	58.8
	Married	719	37.2
	All others (widow, widower, separated)	67	4.0
	Total	1,924	

It is interesting to note that a majority of both husbands and wives who were slum dwellers in Iloilo City were educated with very little variation in their mean education (8.3 for husbands and 8.1 for wives), which was at least second year high school.

Income of household heads. The reported average weekly income of the respondents' husbands was P121.00. Less than one-half or 136 (43.3 percent of the respondents) declared that their husbands' earnings were below one hundred pesos (P100.00). Approximately one-half (155 or 49.4 percent) of the respondents reported that their husbands' income ranged from P100.00 to P299.00 per week. Very few (14 or 4.5 percent) indicated P300.00 per week and over as their husbands' income. The highest reported income was P1,115.00 while the lowest was P40.00 a week. The mean income was P121.00 per week while the median of the incomes reported was P116.97 per week.

With this, it can be noted that there was a wide variation in the reported income of husbands by their wives among slum dwellers. It should be recalled however that the declared income may not be 100 percent reliable. Field observations indicated that at the time of interview, there was a massive campaign against tax evasion.

Thus one can infer that the move of both the government and private sectors to maximize payment of taxes must have restrained the respondents from declaring the true income of their husbands for fear of being discovered and taxed. Interviewers told that when respondents were asked about income there was some amount of hesitation in their answers, that what they gave was perhaps a modest estimate of their husbands' earnings.

Children ever born (completed births). A larger number of respondents (110 or 35.0 percent) had children ranging in number from 5 and over. There were 103 or 32.8 percent of the women with completed births between 0 to 2; 101 or 32.2 percent had between 3 or 4 births. This shows a very close differential between number of births of respondents with 4.10 births as the mean.

Household size. The size of the household ranged from 2 to 15 members with the mean of 6.2 members per household, which is a little over the national average. One-seventh or 42 (13.4 percent) had 2 to 3 members. Slightly over one-third (108 or 34.7 percent) of the household respondents had 4 to 5 members. More than one-fourth (84 or 26.8 percent) had 6 to 7 members and one-fourth or 79 (25.2 percent) was composed of 8 and more members.

Sex and marital status. Almost one-half (937 or 48.5 percent) of the household members were males. All the rest (987 or 51.5 percent) were females. Of the 1,924 household members, the majority (1,138 or 58.8 percent) were single, all others (67 or 4.0 percent) were widows, widowers and separated. The sex ratio in Iloilo slums was 98/100 which means that there were 98 males for every 100 females, an indication of a lower sex ratio, though very insignificant.

Family Planning Practice of Respondents

Family planning has yet to gain better acceptance by slum dwellers. Data from the survey (Table 4) confirmed that only a little

more than one-fifth of the sample wives (21.9 percent) were currently practising family planning while a larger number (42.7 percent) never dared to adopt any family planning practice at all. Although the remaining 35.4 percent did use family planning, they too quit after some time.

Table 4. Family planning practice of respondents

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Family Planning Use	User	69	21.9
	Used But Stopped	111	35.4
	Never Used	134	42.7
Total		314	100.0

Duration of Marriage in Years

Data indicate that the majority of the slum dwellers have been married for at most ten years by the time of the survey (Table 5). Young marriages of 1 to 5 year duration were those of 28.7 percent of the respondents while another 23.3 percent had been married for 6 to 10 years already. Longer marriages of 11-15 years duration were accrued by 19.1 percent; 16 to 20 years were accrued by 12.4 percent while sample wives who married at least 21 years ago comprised only 16.6 percent of those interviewed.

Age at Marriage of Respondents

Slum dwellers seem to favor early marriage. Data (Table 6) indicate 42.4 percent of the respondents married upon reaching 15 to 19 years of age; 36.3 percent were aged 20 to 24 years at onset of marriage while 16.5 percent decided to marry during their late 20's (25 to 29 years old). Slum dwellers who married during their early 30's (30 to 34 years old) make up 2.5 percent of the respondent women. Slum dwellers who married when aged 35 years or

over comprised 1.7 percent of the sample wives, while only 0.6 percent married when younger--aged 14 years or younger.

Table 5. Duration of marriage in years

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Duration of Marriage	1 - 3	90	28.7
	6 - 10	73	23.2
	11 - 15	60	19.1
	16 - 20	39	12.4
	21 and over	52	16.6
	Total	314	100.0
Total DM		3,772	
Mean		20.70	

Table 6. Age at marriage of respondents

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Age at first marriage	14 and below	2	0.6
	15 - 19	133	42.4
	20 - 24	114	36.3
	25 - 29	52	16.5
	30 - 34	8	2.5
	35 and over	5	1.7
	Total	314	100.0
Total AM		6,148	
Mean		20.70	

Ideal number of births based on respondents' assessment of family income. Data obtained from the survey (Table 7) show that most slum dwellers believe that their income cannot support a big family. Of the 314 women interviewed, the majority (56.1 percent) indicated that 3 or 4 children make up a family of ideal size while for 26.4 percent, only one or two children could be well supported by their family income. Only 17.5 percent claimed the capacity to support 5 or more children.

Table 7. Ideal number of births based on respondents' assessment of family income

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Ideal number of births based on family income (IBBFI)	1 - 2	83	26.4
	3 - 4	176	56.1
	5 and over	55	17.5
Total		314	100.0
Total IBBFI		1,119	
Mean		3.43	

Number of Children Desired by Respondents

As to the number of children desired by slum dwellers (Table 8), the majority (53.2 percent) preferred 3 or 4 children while another 30.9 percent wanted an even smaller family of only one or two children. A big family of 5 or more children was the choice of 13.3 percent of those women asked, although the rest (1.6 percent) expressed no preference at all as to number of children.

Housing Status of Respondents

A great majority (75.2 percent) of the respondent slum dwellers own houses (Table 9). Data further show that 17.8 percent live in rented houses, while 7.1 percent denied ownership but pay nothing for occupation of their dwellings.

Table 8. Number of children desired by respondents

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Desired births	No plan	5	1.6
	1 - 2	197	30.9
	3 - 4	167	53.2
	5 and over	45	13.3
	Total	314	100.0
Total NCD		1,076	
Mean		3.30	

Table 9. Housing status of respondents

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Ownership of Dwellings	Owned	236	75.2
	Rented	56	17.8
	Free	22	7.0
Total		314	100.0

Respondents' Plan to Move Residence

When asked, most slum dwellers thought of no plan to reside outside the slum area. As shown by the data (Table 10) 64.3 percent of those interviewed preferred to remain in the slum area while only 35.7 percent indicated a plan to move.

Reasons Why Respondents Plan to Move

The 112 respondents who did plan to move residence justified their intentions by giving reasons such as the need of the government or the landlord for the lot they were occupying (41.9 percent);

Table 10. Respondents' answers to the question, "Do you plan to make a move?"

Factor	Category	Number N = 314	Percent
Plan to Move	No	202	64.3
	Yes	112	35.7
Total		314	100.0

Unhealthfulness of the slum area (22.3 percent) and overcrowding (21.4 percent). Absence of progress in the place was also claimed by 4.5 percent of those who plan to move while 3.8 percent wanted jobs in other places. Reasons given less frequently were respondents' desire to acquire a house and lot (1.8 percent) or to separate from parents whom they are presently staying with (1.9 percent). However, the other 2.7 percent made plans to move so they could be with their in-laws.

Reasons Why Respondents Want to Remain in the Slum Area

Further inquiry into the 211 slum dwellers who indicated no plan to move caused 40.1 percent of them to claim that proximity to their husband's job and ease of earning a living justify their choice. Reasons given with lesser frequency were difficulty and expense incurred in moving, not to mention their ignorance of any place to go (18.8 percent); easy means of transportation to market, school or church (5.9 percent); and presence of relatives in the slum area (3.0 percent). Surprisingly, a good 31 of the sample wives (15.4 percent) regard the place as beautiful, peaceful and were contented to stay. Birth, and having been in the place for a long time, were also cited by some respondents (5.9 percent) although 3.0 percent explained nothing about their choice to continue residing in the slum area.

Table 11. Reasons why respondents plan to move

Factor	Reasons	Number N = 314	Percent
Reasons for the plan to move	Lot needed by government/ owner	47	41.9
	Place not healthy	25	22.3
	Overcrowding	24	21.4
	No progress in the area	5	4.5
	Look for better job	4	3.6
	Want to separate from parents	2	1.8
	Want to stay with in-laws	3	2.7
	Plan to acquire own house and lot	2	1.8
Total		112	100.0
Not applicable		202	

Table 12. Reasons why respondents want to stay in place

Factor	Reasons	Number N = 314	Percent
Reasons for not planning to move	Access to husband's job/economic means easy	81	40.1
	Expensive, difficult to transfer; no place to go	38	18.8
	Place beautiful; peaceful, contented; want to stay	31	15.4
	Owned business/store/ house; house and lot free	16	7.9
	Was born/grew/been in place for long	12	5.9
	Easy means of trans- portation to market/ school/church	12	5.9
	Presence of relatives in the place	6	3.0
	No comments	6	3.0
Total		202	100.0
Not applicable		112	

Respondents' Reasons for Choosing the Slum Area for Residence

Among the top-ranking reasons behind the choice of the slum area for residence (Table 13) are its nearness to business centers or its being a workplace (17.5 percent); people's desire to separate from their parents, in-laws and relatives (16.7 percent); and marriage (14.1 percent). The presence of their in-laws and relatives in the slum area has also attracted some 13.7 percent of those asked, while 11.9 percent cited the suitability of the place for business or proximity of the same to their means of livelihood. Other reasons given were the desire to get jobs (12.8 percent) and to study in the city (1.3 percent) while 10.3 percent had no other place to go. Only 1.7 percent of those interviewed did not justify their choice.

Respondents' Reasons for Leaving Their Original Place

Inquiry into why slum dwellers left their original place of residence was also made during the survey. Two categories of reasons were prominent--marriage and distance to work of former residence (29.5 percent) and relocation, destruction of dwellings by fire, overcrowding and the need of the owner for the house and/or lot formerly occupied (29.5 percent). Other reasons given, however, by even fewer respondents were the desire to look for jobs or to study in the city (22.7 percent) and to join relatives, parents and in-laws (10.7 percent) although 14 out of 234 sample wives (5.9 percent) left their native places purposely to separate from their parents, in-laws and relatives. Only 1.7 percent of those asked gave no justification for leaving their original place of residence.

Education and Fertility Level

Table 15 shows the amount of education of the respondents cross classified by the number of births they had at the time of interview.

Table 13. Respondents' reasons for choosing the area to live

Factor	Reasons	Number N = 234	Percent
Reasons for the choice of the place to live	Near b/r business, workplace	41	17.5
	Separate from parents, in-laws, relatives	39	16.7
	Presence of parents, in-laws, relatives in the place	32	13.7
	Marriage/joined husband	33	14.1
	Get job	30	12.8
	Better place for business/near means of livelihood	28	11.9
	Only place found vacant	24	10.3
	Study	3	1.3
	Unstated	4	1.7
Total		234	100.0
Not applicable		80	

Table 14. Respondents' reasons for leaving the original place

Factor	Reasons	Number N = 234	Percent
Reasons for leaving the original place	Marriage, place far from his/her work	69	29.5
	Relocated/fire/overcrowding/government/owner needs house/lot	69	29.5
	No job/look for job/study	53	22.7
	Joined relatives/parents, in-laws	25	10.7
	Separate from parents/in-laws/relatives	14	5.9
	Unstated	4	1.7
Total		234	100.0
Not applicable		80	

Table 15. Percent distribution of respondents by amount of education and number of children born

Amount of Education	Children Ever Born			
	3 & below	4 to 5	6 & above	Total
Elementary	30 (52.63)	22 (28.32)	32 (28.32)	113 (100)
High School	76 (52.78)	34 (23.61)	37 (25.69)	144 (100)
College	43 (38.05)	17 (29.82)	38 (33.63)	113 (100)
Total	168	83	63	314

$$\chi^2 = 13.33^*$$

$$g = -0.267$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 9.488; \quad 0.025 = 11.143; \quad 0.01 = 13.277$$

* = significant at 0.01 level

It indicates that those with at least college education had the highest number of births of three (63.16 percent) and below, while only 7.0 percent had births of 6 and over. Chi-square value supports the hypothesis which is significant at 0.01 level. Gamma (g) results ($g = -0.267$) on the same manner suggest that there is a moderately high association between the amount of education and the number of births of the women interviewed.

The more education for the women, the higher tendency for her to limit her births, a clear depiction of an inverse relationship between the two variables mentioned as one tends to decrease with the increase of another. Such a relationship is consistent with the findings of Madigan (1979) when he said that, "It may be that women with families well enough endowed to have sent them to college, possessing larger properties to oversee and to care for, such as to require greater than the average family size. The opportunity costs of not having a child for such families may conceivably outweigh any anticipated benefit to be derived from family planning."

Duration of Marriage and Fertility Level

The normal behavior of having a larger family size as a consequence of a longer duration of marriage is consistently observed

among Iloilo City slum dwellers as proven by more than one-half (31 or 65.9 percent) of the total number of respondents who were married for 21 years and over in contrast to 12 or 7.3 percent of those married for 10 years and below of the same fertility level. On the other hand, those with births between 3 and below, 113 or 68.5 percent were that of women married between 10 years and below while only 9 or 19.2 percent had this number of births of those married 21 years and over.

Table 16. Percent distribution of respondents by duration of marriage and number of children ever born

Duration of Marriage (Year)	Children Ever Born			Total
	3 & below	4 to 5	6 & above	
10 & below	113 (68.5)	40 (24.3)	12 (7.38)	165 (100)
11 - 12	27 (26.5)	35 (34.3)	40 (39.3)	102 (100)
21 & over	9 (19.2)	7 (14.9)	31 (65.9)	47 (100)
Total	149	82	83	314

$$\chi^2 = 94.842^*$$

$$g = -0.684$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 9.488; \quad 0.025 = 11.143; \quad 0.01 = 13.277$$

$$0.005 = 14.860$$

* =-significant at 0.005 level

Chi-square computation ($\chi^2 = 94.842$) supported the test which was significant at the 0.005 level. Gamma value ($g = 0.684$) further indicates a strong direct relationship between duration of marriage and CEB. In other words, the longer the duration of marriage, the more children the slum dwellers have.

Migration and Fertility Level

By examining Table 17 it could be noted that there is no significant relationship between Iloilo City slum dwellers' migration behavior after marriage and their number of births completed at the time of interview. Both chi-square ($\chi^2 = 0.7764$) and gamma value ($g = 0.085$) maintained that the statistics involved in the table were insignificant and dissociated, respectively.

Table 17. Percent distribution of respondents by number of moves since marriage and children ever born

Number of Moves Since Marriage	Children Ever Born			Total
	3 & below	4 to 5	6 & above	
1 & over	42 (44.7)	24 (25.5)	28 (29.8)	94 (100)
0	107 (48.6)	58 (26.4)	55 (25.0)	220 (100)
Total	149	82	83	314

$$\chi^2 = 0.7764^{ns}$$

$$g = 0.085$$

ns = insignificant

Wife's Participation in Gainful Employment and Fertility Level

Comparison between respondents' participation in gainful employment and the number of births (Table 18) reveals an interesting shift of previous expectation (working women have lower fertility) because the results of the statistical tests behaved otherwise, that is, working women of Iloilo City slums have high fertility as shown by 32.8 percent of the respondents with 3 and below number of births against 52.0 percent from among the non-working category of the same fertility group.

A change of result however took place in a medium family size group where non-working women (22.4 percent) had a higher fertility

Table 18. Percent distribution of respondents by participation in gainful employment and number of births

Participation in gainful employment	Children Ever Born			Total
	3 & below	4 to 5	6 & above	
Participating	21 (32.81)	23 (35.93)	20 (31.26)	64 (100)
Non-participating	130 (52.00)	56 (22.4)	64 (25.60)	250 (100)
Total	151	79	84	314

$$\chi^2 = 8.224^*$$

$$g = 0.254$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 5.991; \quad 0.025 = 7.378$$

* = significant at 0.025 level

than those engaged in earning a living (35.9 percent). Both chi-square ($\chi^2 = 8.224$) and gamma ($g = 0.254$) supported this claim which was significant at 0.025 level of significance and a moderately low direct relationship, respectively.

Education and Wives' Participation in Gainful Employment

Cross tabulation of respondents' amount of education and their participation in gainful employment (Table 19) indicated a very low association ($g = 0.035$) between the two variables on argument, although chi-square value supports the hypothesis which was significant, at 0.025 level.

Grouping by educational level signifies that extremes, the college and elementary groups, participated actively in gainful employment in favor of the elementary group. Disparity in the three groups or categories however proves of very slight difference.

Table 19. Percent distribution of respondents by amount of education and labor force participation

Amount of Education	Labor Force Participation		
	Participating	Non-participating	Total
College	11 (19.3)	46 (80.7)	57
High School	25 (17.4)	119 (82.6)	144
Elementary	28 (24.8)	113 (75.2)	113
Total	64	250	314

$$\chi^2 = 7.811^*$$

$$g = 0.035$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 5.991; \quad 0.025 = 7.378$$

* = significant at 0.025 level

Duration of Marriage and Labor Force Participation

Distribution of respondents' duration of marriage by labor force participation shows that participation in gainful employment increases with the increase in the duration of marriage ($g = 0.423$). This is evidenced by 15 or 31.9 percent of the respondents who were actively participating in gainful employment and were married for 21 years and over as against the 29 or 28.4 percent of those who were married for 10 years and below with only 12.1 percent found augmenting the family income. The claim is very highly significant at the chi-square table value of 0.005 level.

The change in behavior of non-participation in earning a living is also observable from 87.9 percent to 71.6 percent and finally 68.1 percent of the respondents--a decrease in the non-participation in gainful employment which may be attributed to the participation status.

Table 20. Percent distribution of respondents by duration of marriage and labor force participation

Duration of Marriage in Years	Labor Force Participation		
	Participating	Non-participating	Total
10 & below	20 (12.1)	145 (87.9)	165 (100)
11 to 20	29 (28.4)	73 (71.6)	102 (100)
21 & over	15 (31.9)	32 (68.1)	47 (100)
Total	64	250	314

$$\chi^2 = 21.476^*$$

$$g = 0.423$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 5.991; \quad 0.025 = 7.378; \quad 0.01 = 9.210;$$

$$0.005 = 10.597$$

* - significant at 0.005 level

Migration and Labor Force Participation

A very consistent result on the effect of respondents' migration behavior upon their labor force participation tendency is still observed here (Table 21). This conclusion is made known after the hypothesis is subjected to both the chi-square ($\chi^2 = 4.43418$) and gamma ($g = 0.0007$) tests.

Broken figures likewise evidenced no or very little differentials in both participation (19 or 20.2 percent and 45 or 20.5 percent) and non-participation (75 or 79.8 percent and 175 or 79.5 percent) when looking at the number of moves made by the respondents after marriage.

Family Planning Practice and Number of Births (Last 5 Years)

Table 22 shows the respondents' family planning practice and number of births for the last five years. It reveals that the majority (50.8 percent) of the family planning adoptors were those with 2 and

Table 21. Percent distribution of respondents by number of moves since marriage and labor force participation

Move since Marriage	Labor Force Participation		
	Participating	Non-participating	Total
1 & over	19 (20.2)	75 (79.8)	94
0	45 (20.5)	175 (79.5)	220
Total	64	250	314

$$\chi^2 = 4.43418$$

$$g = 0.0007$$

Table 22. Percent distribution of respondents by family planning practice and number of births for the past five years

Family Planning Practice	Births for the Past 5 Years			Total
	0	1	2 & above	
Currently Using	9 (13.0)	25 (36.2)	35 (50.8)	69
Used But Stopped	28 (25.2)	35 (31.5)	48 (43.3)	111
Never Used	38 (28.4)	57 (42.5)	39 (29.1)	134
Total	75	117	122	314

$$\chi^2 = 12.997^*$$

$$g = 0.250$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 9.488$$

$$0.025 = 11.143$$

* - significant at 0.025 level

Table 23. Percent distribution of respondents by duration of marriage and births for the last five years

Duration of Marriage in Years	Births for the Last 5 Years			Total
	0	1	2 & above	
10 & below	18 (11.0)	64 (39.3)	83 (49.7)	163
11 to 20	28 (27.5)	39 (38.2)	35 (34.3)	102
21 & over	29 (61.7)	14 (29.8)	4 (8.5)	47
Total	75	117	122	314

$$\chi^2 = 55.09^*$$

$$g = -0.524$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 9.488; \quad 0.025 = 11.143; \quad 0.01 = 13.277$$

$$0.005 = 14.860$$

* - significant at 0.005 level

more children. Quitters and non-adoptors on the other hand were those with 0 or 1 child, a kind of reasonable decision not to adopt or to quit adopting the program.

Broken distribution of birth cases therefore suggest that the adoption of family planning practices tend to be high when the woman wants to control her births, which test was significant ($\chi^2 = 12.997$) at 0.025 level. Similarly, gamma ($g = 0.250$) value indicates that adoption of family planning program is likely to be high as the numbers of births to women gets high.

Duration of Marriage and Number of Births (Last 5 Years)

Chi-square test ($\chi^2 = 55.09$) for the duration of marriage and births for the past five years proves highly significant (0.005). This deduction is clearly seen when looking at the 10-year category of duration of marriage which indicates that almost one-half (49.7 percent) of those who were married 10 years and below had 2 or more children as against 18 or 11.0 percent of the cases in the same category with zero (0) birth. Gamma value ($g = -0.524$) gives a negatively high correlation between the two variables on test. By negative correlation, it is meant that as the duration of marriage increases, births for the last five years would tend to decrease.

Migration and Number of Births (Last Five Years)

As previously discovered (Tables 17 and 21), there is no significant relationship between respondents' number of moves since marriage and their completed births at the time of interview. The same result is arrived at when the dependent variable is limited to births for the last five years (Table 24).

Spelled out cases reveal about 22 or 23.4 percent of the cases had zero birth; 38 or 40.4 percent had one birth; 36 or 36.2 percent had 2 or more births with reference to those who have had one or more moves. From among those who had not transferred residence, 53 or

Table 24. Percent distribution of respondents by number of moves since marriage and number of births for the last five years

Moves Since Marriage	Births for the Last 5 Years			Total
	0	1	2 & over	
1 and over	22 (23.4)	38 (40.4)	36 (36.2)	94
0	53 (24.1)	79 (35.9)	86 (40.0)	220
Total	75	117	122	314

$$\chi^2 = 0.3792^{ns}$$

$$g = 0.0009$$

ns = not significant

24.1 percent had zero birth; 79 or 35.9 percent had one birth and 86 or 40.0 percent had 2 or more births. Gamma and chi-square values simultaneously sustain the claim that both the hypothetical test and test of correlation are respectively found insignificant as well as dissociated.

Labor Force Participation and Births for the Last Five Years

Labor force participation by births for the last five years (Table 25) proves that there is a very slight significant relationship between the two variables on test ($\chi^2 = 4.40005$).

Further examination of the table, however, shows that there is a low difference between the woman's number of births and the degree of her participation in gainful employment. The statement is made due to the fluctuating tendency of the respondents to be active in helping the family earn a living at first until her first baby and gets less active after her second and more births.

Table 25. Percent distribution of respondents by labor force participation and number of births for the last five years

Labor Force Participation	Births for the Last Five Years			
	0	1	2 & above	Total
Participating	21 (32.8)	18 (28.1)	25 (39.1)	64
Non-participating	54 (21.6)	99 (39.6)	97 (38.8)	250
Total	75	117	122	314

$$\chi^2 = 4.40005^*$$

$$g = 0.091$$

tabular value: 0.05 = 3.841

* = significant at 0.05 level

Table 26. Percent distribution of respondents by family planning practice and total number of births

Family Planning Practice	Children Ever Born			
	3 & below	4 to 5	6 & above	Total
Current Users	42 (60.9)	16 (23.2)	11 (15.9)	69 (100)
Used But Stopped	33 (29.7)	30 (27.0)	48 (43.3)	111 (100)
Never Used	14 (52.2)	33 (24.6)	27 (23.1)	134 (100)
Total	149	79	86	314

$$\chi^2 = 27.998^*$$

$$g = 0.353$$

* = significant at 0.005 level

Family Planning Practice and Number of Children Ever Born

The data in Table 26 suggest that family planning adoptors have the smallest family size. More than one-half or 60.7 percent of the total cases who were practising family planning had 3 children and below; a little less than one-fourth or 23.2 percent had 4 to 5 children and only 11 or 15.9 percent of the cases had 6 and more children. Compared to the non-users of the program, the data reveals that there is a narrow disparity between those who adopted and those who did not adopt family planning programs with reference to family size, but the difference evidently gets higher when looking at big family size. This was shown by 27 or about one-fourth (23.2 percent) of the non-adopter cases. Hypothesis therefore which states that family planning adoptors have smaller families is thus accepted at a very high significance level (0.005). Gamma value ($g = 0.353$) likewise indicates that the two variables are correlated.

Education and Family Planning Practice

Table 27 shows a direct relationship between amount of education and adoption of family planning ($g = 0.183$). It is shown by the highest percentage (35.7 percent or more than one-third) of the college people who were practising family planning compared to only about one-fourth or 22.9 percent of the high school people and only 14.0 percent or one-seventh of those with at least elementary education. From among the non-users, the table indicates that less than one-third or 30.4 percent of the college cases did not practise family planning as against the majority of the elementary group of respondents.

Strengthening the claim for a direct relationship indicated by the gamma value, the chi-square test gives a highly significant result at 0.025 level of significance.

Duration of Marriage and Family Planning Practice

When duration of marriage was cross-tabulated with family planning practice a convincing result was achieved. Stated hypothesis was highly

Table 27. Percent distribution of respondents by amount of education and family planning practice

Amount of Education	Family Planning Practice			
	Currently Using	Used But Stopped	Never Used	Total
College	20 (35.7)	19 (33.9)	17 (30.4)	56 (100)
High School	33 (22.9)	47 (32.6)	64 (44.5)	144 (100)
Elementary	16 (14.0)	45 (39.5)	53 (46.5)	114 (100)
Total	69	111	134	314

$$\chi^2 = 11.492^*$$

$$g = 0.183$$

tabular values:

$$0.05 = 9.488; \quad 0.025 = 11.143$$

* = significant at 0.025 level

Table 28. Percent distribution of respondents by duration of marriage and family planning practice

Duration of Marriage	Family Planning Practice			
	Currently Using	Used But Stopped	Never Used	Total
& below	24 (26.7)	17 (18.9)	49 (54.4)	90 (100)
6 to 10	24 (38.9)	27 (37.0)	22 (30.1)	73 (100)
11 to 15	12 (20.0)	27 (45.0)	21 (35.0)	60 (100)
16 & above	9 (9.9)	40 (44.0)	42 (46.1)	91 (100)
Total	69	111	134	314

$$\chi^2 = 25.296^*$$

$$g = -0.055$$

* = significant at 0.005 level

significant at 0.005 level of test. Subsequently, gamma value ($g = -0.55$) strengthens the results depicting an inverse relationship. That is, as the duration of marriage in years increases, the practice of family planning decreases. This is shown by 26.7 percent of the cases who were married 5 years and below (note that there is a slight increase in the percentage of adoption of the family planning practice from the sixth to the tenth year of respondents' marriage. But the tendency to adopt dropped significantly low from the 11th year of marriage and over.

Migration and Family Planning Practice

The data in Table 29 shows the percentage distribution of respondents by the number of moves since marriage and family planning practice. It indicates that from among those who had at least one or more moves for life since marriage, 23.3 percent practised family planning, 36.2 percent practised but stopped at a certain period of time and 41.5 percent did not attempt to try to adopt. From among the stayers in the present place 21.8 percent were currently practising family planning, 35.0 percent used but stopped and 43.2 percent never used.

Further investigation of the data proves that there is no significant relationship between the two variables when subjected to both the chi-square ($\chi^2 = 0.0635$) test and gamma ($g = 0.107$) measure statistics.

Labor Force Participation and Family Planning Practice

Respondents' labor force participation by family planning practice evince 20.3 percent or one-fifth of the respondents who were actively participating in gainful employment favor family planning at the time of the survey. A little less than one-third or 32.8 percent practised but had quit and some 46.9 percent never tried at all. Of those not participating in augmenting family income in some way or the other, 22.4 or a little more than one-fifth were using family planning, 36.0 percent used but had stopped and 41.6 percent never dared to.

Table 29. Percent distribution of respondents by number of moves since marriage and family planning practice

Moves Since Marriage	Family Planning Practice			Total
	Currently Using	Used But Stopped	Never Used	
1 & over	21 (22.3)	34 (36.2)	39 (41.5)	94 (100)
0	48 (21.8)	77 (35.0)	95 (43.2)	220 (100)
Total	69	111	134	314

$$\chi^2 = 0.0635^{ns}$$

$$g = 0.107$$

ns = not significant

Table 30. Percent distribution of respondents by labor force participation and family planning practice

Labor Force Participation	Family Planning Practice			Total
	Currently Using	Used But Stopped	Never Used	
Participating	13 (20.3)	21 (32.8)	30 (46.9)	64 (100)
Non-participating	56 (22.4)	90 (36)	104 (41.6)	250 (100)
Total	69	111	134	314

$$\chi^2 = 0.5172^{ns}$$

$$g = 0.083$$

ns = not significant

Comparing then those helping in earning a living and those not helping, the table manifests no significant influence of the behavior on the degree of adoption of family planning programs. Chi-square test $\chi^2 = 0.5172$) which instruments this conclusion is helped by the gamma ($g = 0.083$) measures prompting that the two variables are both insignificant and dissociated.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

A total of 314 households belonging to nine of the depressed barangays in Iloilo City were surveyed using a structured interview schedule in order to evolve information concerning some socio-demographic characteristics of slum dwellers. An attempt was also made to relate some of the socio-demographic characteristics to each other but more emphatically to the fertility level achieved by slum inhabitants. The researcher worked on the hypotheses which included the possible influence of education, age at marriage, migration status, labor force participation and practice of family planning to fertility level of slum dwellers; and of educational attainment, duration of marriage and migration to labor force participation of slum dweller wives.

Socio-demographic characteristics. A little more than one-fifth (22.6 percent) of the sample wives were 25 to 29 years old while a similar proportion of husbands (21.0 percent) belonged to the 30 to 34 age bracket. Sample women's ages averaged 32.6 years which was 3.7 years younger than their spouses' mean age (36.3 years). The majority of the respondent women attained high school (47.1 percent) and elementary education (35.0 percent). None got zero formal education while only 17.8 percent were able to study in college. The same trend was obtained for their husbands' educational attainment. Classification of household incomes derived from husband's earnings shows almost one-half (49.4 percent) of the respondents belonging to the weekly income category of P101.00 to P299.00. Mean weekly income of husbands was P121.00 with P116.97 as the median.

Modal category of number of children ever born was quite a big family of 5 or more births for 35 percent of the sample households. Mean CEB was computed to be 4.10. Composition of slum households averaged 6.18 members with however a little more than one-third

(34.7 percent) of the sample households comprising 4 to 5 members. The sex count of household composition shows a 98/100 men to women ratio while data on marital status indicated a 58.8 percent of the household members as single. More than one-third (37.2 percent) were married.

Non-adoptors of family planning accounted for a higher 42.7 percent of the respondent slum wives compared to 21.9 percent as current users. Users who stopped, however, totaled 35.4 percent of the slum dwellers (wives).

With the time of interview as reference, the modal range of marriage duration (28.7 percent) was 1 to 5 years with a mean marriage duration of 12.01 years. Sample wives married at a mean age of 20.70 years. Age range at marriage accruing greatest frequency was 15 to 19 years.

Three to four was claimed by the majority (56.1 percent) of the respondents as the ideal number of children based on their assessment of family income. Mean ideal births claimed was 3.43. Similar data were obtained for number of children desired by slum dweller wives, in which case, 3 to 4 children were also preferred by the majority (53.2 percent) with 3.30 as the mean desired number of births.

In terms of housing status, the survey shows that about three-fourths (75.2 percent) of the slum families own houses, 17.8 percent rent dwellings while only 7.0 percent occupied dwellings for free.

Most (64.3 percent) slum dwellers had no plan to move residence. Among the top-ranking reasons for their stay were access to their husbands' jobs and ease of earning a living (40.1 percent); expense and difficulty in moving plus ignorance of any other place to move (18.8 percent); and beauty, peacefulness and contentment of current situation (15.4 percent). Those who planned to move residence gave the following reasons: need of the lot by the government/owner (41.9 percent); unhealthy environment in the slum area (22.3 percent) and overcrowding (15.4 percent). Other reasons were of lesser frequency.

Choice of the slum area for residence was due to these three most prominent reasons, namely, its nearness to business centers or its being a workplace (17.5 percent); desire of people to separate from parents, in-laws and relatives (16.7 percent); and marriage (14.1 percent). Why slum dwellers left their original place and moved to the present residence was accounted for by three reasons given most frequently, to wit: marriage and distance of former residence from work (29.5 percent); relocation, fire, overcrowding and need of the government or owner for the house and/or lot formerly occupied (29.5 percent); and unemployment or desire to work or to study (22.7 percent).

Relationship of amount of education, duration of marriage, migration behavior, and labor force participation to fertility. Inverse relation of moderately high statistical significance ($p = 0.01$) was obtained from classification of data on amount of respondents' education and their fertility level, in which case, higher proportion of college category (63.16 percent) had three to four children ever born (CEB) compared to that of elementary graders (43.36 percent) of the same CEB.

Classifying CEB according to duration of marriage showed that in 3 or less CEB category, marriage of at most 10 year duration got 68.5 percent; decreasing to 26.5 percent for 11-12 year marriage duration and further diminishing to only 19.2 percent for marriage of 21 years or longer in duration. However, for 6 or more CEB category, duration of at most 10 years obtained 7.38 percent, increasing to 39.3 percent for 11-12 year category and further increasing to 65.9 percent for marriages that happened at least 21 years ago. The direct relationship observed was found to be of high statistical significance ($p = 0.005$).

Relationship of number of moves to fertility level was found statistically insignificant. Percentage of wives involved in gainful employment with 3 or less CEB was 32.81 percent which was higher than that of non-working wives of the same CEB (52.00 percent). On the other extreme, percentages for 6 or more CEB was 31.26 of the

working wives and a lesser 25.60 percent for non-working wives. Statistical tests confirmed a high probability ($p = 0.025$) for the existence of a direct relationship. In other words, chances are non-working wives had less children than working wives.

Relationship of Education, Duration of Marriage and Migration

Status to Labor Force Participation of Wives. Data classification showed that 19.3 percent of those belonging to the "college" category were working wives while elementary graders who are likewise working wives accounted for a higher percentage of 24.8. On the other hand, in the non-working classification were 80.7 percent from the "college" category and a lower 75.2 percent from the elementary grades. The observed relationship, therefore, was a tendency for wives of higher educational attainment to help earn a living for their families. Conversely, wives who attained only the lower rungs of the educational ladder had a tendency of non-participation in gainful employment. The foregoing relationship was statistically significant at 0.025 level.

Further classification of respondents belonging to different durations of marriage revealed that of wives married at most 10 years ago, 12.1 percent were labor force participants, while wives who were likewise labor force participants got a higher 31.9 percent from those married at least 21 years ago. The non-working group obtained 87.9 percent from the "10 years and below" category and a lower 68.1 percent from those married at least 21 years ago. The above data show a higher tendency for wives of longer marriage duration to contribute to the income of their families. Statistical tests confirmed a high significance ($p = 0.005$) to this relationship.

Percent distribution of wives by migration status and labor force participation indicated that an insignificant relationship exists between these two variables.

Relationship of family planning practice, duration of marriage, migration status, and labor force participation to births for the last five years.

By associating family planning practice to number of births for the last five years, the data showed that those with zero birth comprised 13.0 percent of the current users, 25.2 percent of the quitters further increasing to 28.4 percent of the non-adoptors. On the other extreme, respondents with 2 or more births for the last five years, accounted for a high 50.8 percent of the current users, 43.3 percent of the quitters, and further diminishing to only 29.1 percent of the non-adoptors. The result was quite surprising since it appeared that the number of births increased with an increasing degree of family planning adoption. Nevertheless, the statistical test supports the existence of such a relationship ($p = 0.025$).

By plotting duration of marriage against births for the last five years, it was shown that 11.0 percent of those married at most 10 years ago had zero birth while the same birth category comprised 61 percent of those married at the longest duration (21 or more years). Percentages under the 2 or more births category was an opposite trend, wherein a high 49.7 percent was accrued from those with 10 or less years of marriage and only 8.5 percent of those belonging to the longest duration category. The relationship derived from this set of data was a decrease in the number of births for the last 5 years as duration of marriage lengthened. The relation was found to be highly significant ($p = 0.005$).

When migration status was associated with number of births for the last 5 years, the result indicated a poor relationship which was confirmed statistically insignificant. However, results further showed that labor force participation had a significant relationship with births for the last five years ($p = 0.05$). The relation however, could be considered negligible ($g = 0.091$) since very slight disparity was observed among the data.

Relationship of family planning to CEB, education, duration of marriage, migration status and labor force participation. Classified data indicated that for current users, 60.87 percent belonged to 3 or less CEB category, while only 52.22 percent of the non-adoptors were under the same CEB

category. Those of 6 or more CEB were only 15.94 percent of the current users but a higher 23.15 percent of the non-adoptors were classified under the same CEB category. Hence, the relationship is a slim chance for current users to have more children but a high tendency for non-adoptors to have more children. Statistical significance was high ($p = 0.001$).

Slum dweller wives with higher educational attainment tend to accept family planning. This tendency was confirmed when respondents of varying amounts of education were classified according to family planning practice. As observed from the data, a higher percentage (33.74) of wives in the "college" category were current users compared to only 14.04 percent of the elementary graders who were also current users. On the other hand, non-adoptors were 30.46 percent of wives with college education which is lower than 46.5 percent of the elementary graders who, too, were non-adoptors.

Breaking down data by duration of marriage and family planning practice, indicated that 26.7 percent of those with a maximum of 5 years marriage duration were current users compared to only 9.89 percent of those married at least 16 years ago, who were likewise current users. The quitters, however, were only 18.89 percent of those with 5 or less years of marriage but a higher 43.95 percent of those who were married at least 16 years ago. The relationship may then be stated as a decrease in the degree of family planning adoption with an increase in the duration of marriage among slum dweller women. The foregoing relation proved to be of high statistical significance ($p = 0.005$).

The results also showed, with considerable probability, that family planning adoption of slum dwellers is not associated with their migration behavior and labor force participation of the wives.

Conclusions and Implications

The greatest proportion of slum dweller wives and household heads are 25 to 34 years old. Wives on the average are however 3 years younger than their husbands. Most slum dwellers, both wives and household heads had a high school education. Modal household size in the slum areas of Iloilo City was 4 to 7 with the mean household having 6 members. The

majority of the household members are female and the sex ratio is 98 men to 100 women. Marital status of household members showed about 60 percent single.

Non-adoptors of family planning account for almost twice the number of current users (22 percent) while those who used family planning but quit later comprised about one-third of the slum women. As to duration of marriage of slum dwellers, the majority had been married for at most a decade by the time of the survey, while modal age at marriage ranges from 15 to 24 years with mean marriage occurring when women were 21 years old.

Ideal number of births based on slum wives' assessment of family income is 3 or 4. The majority also desired the same number of children. As to their housing status, about three-fourths of the slum dwellers own houses while only about one-fifth board rental houses.

The majority of the slum inhabitants had no plan to move residence. Prominent reasons for such preference include the need of the government or owner for the lot they are occupying, unhealthfulness of slum area, and overcrowding. Top-ranking reasons for their desire to remain in the slum area are access to husband's job and easy means of livelihood in the place; expense and difficulty in moving in addition to ignorance of any other place to go; and contentment of current situation, to further include beauty and peacefulness of the slum area.

The inhabitants choose the slum area for residence because of its nearness to business centers and its being a workplace; their need to separate from parents, in-laws and relatives; and marriage. Why slum dwellers left their original place of residence, is due to marriage and distance of former residence to work; relocation, fire, overcrowding, and the need of the government/owner for the house and/or lot formerly occupied; and unemployment or desire to land jobs or to study in the city.

Fertility of slum dweller women is inversely related to amount of education which indicates that a woman with high educational attainment tends to limit her births probably because she understands (better than

the less educated) the problem she would encounter in supporting a big family considering the relatively low income that she could depend upon.

Fertility however, is directly related to duration of marriage and wives' participation in gainful employment. It is a normal consequence that husbands and wives who have been married for a longer period of time have more children. The second relationship could be attributed to the wife's or couple's belief that her participation in gainful employment augments their family's capacity to support more children, resulting in more births. However, the survey shows that migration status of slum dwellers exert no influence at all on the fertility of wives.

When wife's participation in gainful employment was associated with other factors, it was found to be directly related to amount of education. This relationship is consistent with the view that education begets a wide opportunity for employment. However, this does not necessarily mean that non-working wives do not work because they do not want to. On the other hand, working wives do work because they are relatively educationally qualified.

Slum dweller wives who accrued longer marriage duration tend to participate in gainful employment. This direct relationship should be existent since wives who have stayed long in marriage should have been well adjusted to family life, hence, they could spare some of their time earning additional income for their families. Or probably, they currently do not have young children who demands most of their time at home.

The study further shows that migration status does not exert any influence on the labor force participation of the wives.

By associating the number of births for the last five years to other variables, it was found that duration of marriage is most likely inversely related to fertility. Hence, the longer the marriage duration, the lesser births slum dwellers have for the last 5 years. This result indicates that slum dwellers tend to have frequent births during the early part of their married life. The frequency should then

lessen during the later part of marriage because they have relatively enough children by then, and they should have anticipated already the problem of supporting additional children.

Other factors such as migration behavior were found unrelated to fertility for the last five years; however, the latter tends to be directly associated with labor force participation which implies that some relationship should exist. The direct relationship, however, was shown to be negligible since percentages of working and non-working wives of different birth categories were of very slight disparity.

The results also indicated that the number of children ever born (CEB) tends to increase from those of current users to quitters and finally to non-adoptors. This shows the benefit of controlled births resulting from family planning adoption. Unfortunately, however, slum dwellers who are current users accounted for only about one-fifth compared to about two-fifths who are non-adoptors. This implies a need for an increase in the degree of acceptance of family planning among this sector of the country's population.

Further association of family planning adoption to amount of education, revealed a direct relation between them. As shown, elementary graders were mostly non-adoptors while most college attainers were current users. Thus, the schooling capacity of slum dwellers should be improved to effect a probable increase in the number of family planning adoptors among slum dwellers of tomorrow.

Family planning adoption was found to be inversely related to duration of marriage which shows that most of the recently married inhabitants are current users. This situation is attributable to the effect of recently implemented requirement of having some family planning education before marriage is allowed. Overall implication is some degree of success gained by the family planning program of the government among recently married slum dwellers. It should be noted, however that quitters of family planning practice accounts for a considerably high proportion of almost one-third of the slum couples and most of them belong to the "big family" category of 2 or more CEB.

Migration behavior and wives' labor force participation tend to exert no influence on their family planning adoption.

Recommendations

The abundance of jobs in the city has been continually gaining the preference of people who before they moved to the slums were already experiencing economic problems. Unfortunately, their flocking to the slums has just bred and perpetuated their disparity. As findings show, slum dwellers still belong to the low-income stratum of the society. The survey also confirms that slum women have high fertility which is a great contributing factor to possible occurrence of micropopulation explosion in the already crowded slum areas.

As fertility was associated with other factors, it was found that big families could be attributed to low educational attainment of parents, long duration of marriage and low degree of family planning adoption.

Findings also showed that family planning adoption was more frequent among more highly educated women suggesting that a feasible approach to reduce fertility among succeeding generations of slum inhabitants is making them attain higher levels of education. In this regard, slum dwellers may be given better chances to avail themselves of free education, like scholarship grants and other forms of schooling aids. This is a basic approach, yet, the more direct benefit it could afford to slum dwellers is the improvement of their employment opportunity. They would then be able to raise their own standard of living and could possibly resettle themselves in areas more conducive to happy living.

Since findings also showed that family planning adoption results in reduced fertility, it is necessary that the currently low acceptability of family planning to slum inhabitants should be improved. The government agency concerned should devise means or approaches that could make family planning more appreciated by slum dwellers.

Considering the relationship of duration of marriage to fertility somehow suggests that early marriage could somehow result in high fertility. This should be a natural consequence but the solution may

lie in encouraging young slum inhabitants to marry at older ages. As this survey revealed, most marriages occur when slum dwellers are 15 to 19 years old. Raising this age range by a number of years, should cause considerable effect in fertility reduction. Again, education should play a very important role in this respect. Growing children being exposed to schools, church, home and community which discourages early marriages should be a greatly effective approach.

The situation of low income and high fertility among slum inhabitants should undoubtedly be a problem. As results further show, the current number of births of most slum families exceeds the number of births regarded by wives as ideal based on the magnitude of their income. It is obvious that bread-winners cannot entirely support the relatively big family they are tending. While ways are devised to reduce fertility, husbands should at the same time be given better chances at jobs that earn a higher income. They may be encouraged to undergo vocational or out-of-school and other manpower development training which should be provided to them free or at some other beneficial arrangements. They, however, need further help in job placement, and the jobs should be in line with their training. In this concern, the government with its numerous agencies should be an indispensable entity. Although programs of manpower development has been going on in many parts of the country, yet, implementation of the same among slum inhabitants in Iloilo City needs intensification.

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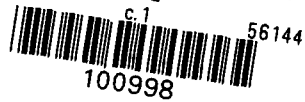
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SEAPRAP

THE SOUTHEAST ASIA POPULATION RESEARCH AWARDS PROGRAM

PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

- * To strengthen the research capabilities of young Southeast Asian social scientists, and to provide them with technical support and guidance if required.
- * To increase the quantity and quality of social science research on population problems in Southeast Asia.
- * To facilitate the flow of information about population research developed in the program as well as its implications for policy and planning among researchers in the region, and between researchers, government planners and policy makers.

ILLUSTRATIVE RESEARCH AREAS

The range of the research areas include a wide variety of research problems relating to population, but excludes reproductive biology. The following are some examples of research areas that could fall within the general focus of the Program:

- * Factors contributing to or related to fertility regulation and family planning programs; familial, psychological, social, political and economic effects of family planning and contraception.
- * Antecedents, processes, and consequences (demographic, cultural, social, psychological, political, economic) of population structure, distribution, growth and change.
- * Family structure, sexual behaviour and the relationship between child-bearing patterns and child development.
- * Inter-relationships between population variables and the process of social and economic development (housing, education, health, quality of the environment, etc).
- * Population policy, including the interaction of population variables and economic policies, policy implications of population distribution and movement with reference to both urban and rural settings, and the interaction of population variables and law.
- * Evaluation of on-going population education programs and/or development of knowledge-based population education program.

- * Incentive schemes — infrastructures, opportunities; overall economic and social development programs.

SELECTION CRITERIA

Selection will be made by a Program Committee of distinguished Southeast Asian scholars in the social sciences and population. The following factors will be considered in evaluating research proposals:

1. relevance of the proposed research to current issues of population in the particular countries of Southeast Asia;
2. its potential contribution to policy formation, program implementation, and problem solving;
3. adequacy of research design, including problem definition, method of procedure, proposed mode of analysis, and knowledge of literature;
4. feasibility of the project, including time requirement; budget; and availability, accessibility, and reliability of data;
5. Applicant's potential for further development.

DURATION AND AMOUNT OF AWARDS

Research awards will be made for a period of up to one year. In exceptional cases, requests for limited extension may be considered. The amount of an award will depend on location, type and size of the project, but the maximum should not exceed US\$7,500.

QUALIFICATIONS OF APPLICANTS

The Program is open to nationals of the following countries: Burma, Indonesia, Kampuchea, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. Particular emphasis will be placed on attracting young social scientists in provincial areas.

Applications are invited from the following:

- * Graduate students in thesis programs
- * Faculty members
- * Staff members in appropriate governmental and other organizations.

Full-time commitment is preferable but applicants must at least be able to devote a substantial part of their time to the research project. Advisers may be provided, depending on the needs of applicants.